SOME NEW BOOKS. Espertmental Evolu

Five lectures delivered at Edinburgh in 180 y M. Henry de Varigny, member of the Pari Biological Society, have been published in book form by the Macmillans. The purpose of tures is: first, to review the of the evolution hypothesis, and, secondly, to strate the necessity of supplementing these by prolonged and concerted experiments The evidence drawn by evolutionists from paleontology, embryology, and morphology is examined in detail, and the author concede that the facts brought forward are scarcely comprehensible upon the theory of specia greation, while they are perfectly intelligible

Nevertheless, M. De Varigny returns a negalive answer to the question, can we consider the doctrine of the transmutation of species as firmly established, that is to say, as demon strated by facts in an unmistakable manner? relutionists may be convinced, as the author of this book seems to be, of the truth of their heory, and they may point to a number of acts which fit in with it; but, in his opinion, they cannot yet give the required demenstradal creation theo.y is different. As none of them claims that special ereation is now going on, we cannot ask them to show us an example of the phenomenon. The evolution ts, on the other hand, cannot claim that evolution is a process of the past. They believe n its present existence, not only in or ganle structures, but also in the inor rid, and they point to the facts of sollogy, psychology and astronomy as illustrating the process of evolution mists, therefore, may fairly demand of em to exhibit precise and unmistakable ins of transmutation. Are evolutionists prepared to meet this difficulty? They may wer that astronomical facts are not under atrol, and that an enormous amount of time is required to yield a single instance of on, so that all they can do is to note the present condition of things, and that our de-condants, after making similar observations, may draw the conclusions. So far as psychology se concerned, they may say that proofs of individual evolution are to be seen every day. and that mental evolution is a positive fact in every individual man and in the animal kingfom as a whole. Lastly, as regards zoology. they may reply that innumerable facts poin to descent and evolution. The creationists. however, may deny the cogency of these argu ments. They may say that if species are really evolved from each other we must now show a species arising by evolution from former species. In many paleontological cases we do not find the connecting links whose existence is assumed, and we have not yet seen a new les originate from a preceding one. Show us this, say the creationists, show us one post tive case of transmutation through natural sans, such as may and do operate under nat ural conditions, show us a species becoming a new one hitherto unknown, and we will be

This demand must be answered, and this proof of transmutation must be furnished. It can be secured only through direct experiment through experimental transformism But if we are to subject the evolution theory to the test of experiment, we can only do so by an investigation of the efficiency of the factors of evolution. Every one of the recogaized factors must be investigated. What are these factors? One of the latest definitions of them is to be found in a paper by Le Conte They comprise, first, the presence of a changing environment affecting functions, the func tions affecting structure, and the changed function and structure being inherited through successive generations for an indefinite pe riod; second, the use and disuse of organs, reacting on growth-force and producing change in form, structure, and relative size of parts, such change being transmitted through suc cessive generations; third, natural selection ong individuals of a varying progeny, of those most in accord with an ever-changing environment, or, as it has been otherwis led, the survival of the fittest in each successive generation: fourth, sexual selection practised by females among varying male individuals, the purpose being the possession of the strongest and the most attractive; among mammals the selection is mainly of the strongest, as decided by battle; among birds of the most attractive, as determined by splendor of color or beauty of song; fifth, physicthe individuals of which are fertile among selves, but sterile or less fertile with other varieties and with the parent stock. This has been called segregate fecundity by Gulick and homogamy by Romanes.

It is, of course, understood that these five ors are not all recognized by all evolutionists. The two first factors are Lamarckian, winian. The former as well as the latter are Preach evolutionists, whereas in Germany and to a less extent in England there is a tendency to repudiate the Lamarckian factors and of use and disuse. Prof. cepted by almost all American and by some of environment and of use and disuse. Prof. Weismann, for instance, is convinced that, at present at all events, or as concerns the higher animals, the Lamarckian factors are pos-sessed of no influence, and his essays on heredity all affirm the non-hereditability of acquired character. Nevertheless, whatever may be individual opinions as to the respective value of the factors of evolution it is obus that all must be subjected to the same -that of experiment; the results will determine the efficiency of the factors and the soundness of the theory itself. As to the detalls of the experimental process, the author of this book merely offers some suggestions. or the purpose of determining the influence of environment, we might operate on many sorts of animals and plants. A simple method would be to transfer plants and animals from one country to another, or from mountains to plains, or vice versa, or from dry to moist oil, from calcareous to slikeous, from a cold to a warm climate, from one pond in one sort of soil to another pond in another sort of soil: from light to semi-darkness, or from land to er. The difficulty lies not in the method of the experiment, but in appreciating the results. These are not always external and obvious; many are internal and require chemeal and microscopical investigation; such differences. however, in chemical constitution or in structure may have a great influence on the struggle for life and the operation of nat-As regards the effect of use and disuse, ex-

periments may be made to diminish or suppress the activity of some organ by keeping its or animals in such conditions as to render some character useless. For instance, one might try to obtain unscented or riess flowers, through artificial fecundation of all the flowers of a plant which mally requires insect intervention; for the plant is supposed to have developed scent or or with the view of attracting insects. Or, ila. we may place an animal under condias that would render the development of ne organ or function of great uso, and even scussity. Experiments on the inheritance utilations may also be renewed, care beaken to operate by preference on useless It is admitted that the experiin this direction which have been formed have not been successful. poteworthy fact that while the opera-process of the construction is recognized by most evolu-including even these who hold inn as opposed to Darwinian views. ds. One of the most successful was din Prance by M. de Vilmorin many before the publication of the "Origin of ecles." This investigator, desiring to ob-

on the wild carrot a thick and edible

his experiments through some seven

it years. Another demonstration of the

of the selective process has been fur-

d by Franch experiments on the best

eded in doing so by selection, after

experiments was to increase the proportion of sugar from 10 to 12, 14, and even 16 per cent, Of course the effect of such experiments was merely to produce a different variety, whereas what is wanted to demonstrate the evolution hypothesis is a different species. It may be sumed a priori that a much longer time would be required for the production by con cutive experiments of a species than would be needed for the production of a variety.

The problem of heredity also requires inves ligation by experiment as well as observation What is heredity? How does it operate? What is transmitted? We hardly know anything bout the matter. Weismann's essays are un oubtedly valuable, but facts are needed t support his deductions, and the facts require must come mainly through experiment. Take for instance, the sub-question of the heredity of abnormalities and mutilations. It is certain that some abnormalities when not op posed to the continuation of life are heredita y. A striking instance is that of the Fodli tribe in Arabia, where all the individuals since very ancient times have been born with twenty four digits instead of twenty. Many diseases are hereditary, under the same or a different form. Then, again, the question of heredity of mutilations, although negatively settled b Weismann, seems to call for renewed and more prolonged investigation.

All such experiments can be made or any animals and plants and in any country. What is required for their execution is an institution specially devoted to this line of inquiry. The author of this book would have the institution comprise the following ele ments: Extensive grounds and a farm managed by men experienced in breeding, agri culture, and horticulture; to these should be some greenhouses and a laboratory with the common appliances of chemistry physiology, and histology. A competent chemist and histologist would be indispensable members of the staff. Experiments when once decided upon, should be pursued during a long period of years, and nothing should be altered in their execution unless the experiment should be pronounced useless or devoid of any chance of success. The main thing should be to provide for the duration of the experiment, whether the originators wer living or dead. Time is an indispensable element in such investigation, and experiment of the kind proposed would assuredly exceed the normal term of human life.

It is an interesting fact that since the advo eacy in these lectures of an institution for the experimental investigation of evolution, a practical step in that direction has been taken. Dr. Romanes has circulated in England an appeal for funds to be applied to an experimental institute, conducted substantially ipon the lines above suggested. He desires to see this institute established in connection with the University of Oxford.

We have had one English history of Venice Hazlitt's, which was published about thirty rears ago; and we have had many English books or English translations of foreign books in which the story of the Venetian republic has been outlined in connection with those of other Italian commonwealths. But for the first English History of Venice, which is altogether worthy of the name we are indebted to Mr. HORATIO F. BROWN (Putnams'). This work is the outcome of a first-hand study of the original sources of information. It is based mainly on Romanin's compilation. "Storia documen-tata di Venezia." But the writer has made use many other Italian authorities, a list of whose names is prefaced to the book. We should add that an understanding of the narrative is materially furthered by four maps he first of which depicts the condition of the lagoons of Venice from 500 to 800 A. D. the second the scene of the so-called war of Chioggia, which was the decisive event in the ong duel between Venice and Genoa: the third the possessions acquired by Venice on the mainland of Italy and on the abore of Dalmatia, and the fourth the dependencies of Venice in the Levant. The author's purpose is to write a biography of Venice considered as an organic whole, for, in his eyes, the personality of the republic overshadows the per sonalities of even her most distinguished citizens. The point of view has led him to produce a political narmtive in which but little heed is given to the social aspects of Vene tian history. One would have liked to see the life of the Venetian people at certain epochs traced in more detail, together with a more minute delineation of certain typical individualities, including examples of the diplomatic representatives of the republic throughout the Mediterranear world and in the remote East; of such travellers as Marco Polo, of the merchant adventurof the nobles who were encouraged to found dependent principalities in the islands of the Ægean, and of the mercenary Generals who served the Signory of Venice. But much attention to such themes would have rendered it impossible for the author in the space at his command to carry out his central aim. which is to elucidate one of the most striking instances of the inception, birth, adolescence decline, and death of an urban community which history has to offer.

I. Like all competent writers of history in our own time. Mr. Brown begins with a reference to the physiography of the subject he has undertaken to discuss. He considers it unlikely that the physical aspects of the Venetian estuary have changed very much between the unknown period at which it received its first population and the present date. The lagoons of Venice are a large sheet of salt water in form like a bent bow whose curve follows the line of the mainland, while the string is represented by a number of long low, narrow islands called Lidi, partly mud and partly sand. The Lidi serve as a barrier which prevents the sea from sweeping over the lagoons, and make it possible for man to build upon the island mudbanks: but they do not separate the basin thus created entirely from the sea, for they are pierced at several points by openings which admit the tide from the Adriatic, and give egress and ingress to the inhabitants. At certain points inside the agoon where the muddy bottom is more solid, small islands formed partly by nature and partly by man. rise above the water level. At first these islands were nothing more than barren banks of clay or mud. yet it was upon such foundations that the fishermen of the estuary were destined to raise one of the most powerful, the most long-lived, and the most

contiful cities that the world has seen. It is certain that the shores of the estuary were already inhabited at the beginning of the Christian era. We are not to infer, however, that their population was large or in any sense independent. The lagoons were under the jurisdiction of the great Roman cities on the mainland, including conspicuously Aquileia and Padua. It is not till we reach the period of barbarian invasions that we can begin to rockon the separate history of Venice. The repeated incursions of hungry hordes from beyond the Alps had a double action on the development of the lagoon. First they drove the mainlanders for refuge to the islands, and secondly, they gradually weakened and then destroyed the great mainland cities, and thereby left the island population virtually autonomous, though still bearing the impress of the Roman civilization which characterized the towns from which it draw its origin. This process. however, of disintegration on the mainland and of regermination in the lagoons was a alow one. As each wave of barbarian invasion swept over northeastern Italy and rolled away southward, or was repulsed beyond the Alps. the refugees from the mainland would return to their ancestral homes from their temporary asylum in the lagoon. Neither the incursion of the Marcomanni and Quadi in 170 nor that of the Goths in 378, nor that of Alaric in 400 sufficed to convince the fugitives that their only sure dwelling-blace was upon the impen-etrable waters of the Venetian estuary. Two more terrible invasions—that of the Huns and that of the Lombards—were required before

refugees finally settled down upon the barret nudbanks which they were to make renow ed in history.

The Venetian official account always a signed the 25th of March, 421, as the day on which Venice was born, but the rear 452 bar generally been accepted as the birth date of Venice. That is the year of Attila's invasion. in which Aquileia and other north Italian cities were sacked by the Huns. This date undoubtedly marks the first great point in the development of the lagoon population into a separate State. The Hunnish invasion, with Its ruthless barbarity and merciless destruc tion of the mainland towns, did more than an of its predecessors to people the islands of th estuary, having had a stronger effect than any previous barbarian incursion in convincing the mainlanders that they would be wise to re main in the lagoons. The result of Attila's in vasion was demonstrated fourteen year later, in 480, when the island township took the first step indicative of their independence, and laid the foundation tion of Venetian constitutional history by call ing an assembly at Grado and electing of with the little of tribunes to govern the affaire of each island. The important aspect of this election is that here for the first time the lagoon communities act independently. There is no question of their receiving magistrates from Padua or Aquileia; the lagoon popula tion proceeds to elect its own officers. It is, indeed, not easy to define the nature and power of the Venetian tribunate. In all probability it was an office borrowed from the Ro man municipal government of the mainland cities; that is to say, it was originally intended to be a military office, but subsequently conferred civil functions as well.

H. The year 508 is the second great landmark in the early history of the lagoons; in that year Alboin and his Lombards invaded Ital; from Pannonia. Once again the inhabitants of the ruined mainland eities sought refuge is the estuary. This time they determined to remain there. What Attila had begun Alboin completed. Venetian history is the story of the people, who under stress of repeated invasion between the years 452 and 568 were thus gathered together in the lagoons. Up to this period we have witnessed the making of the Venetians. After 568 the Venetians were made. They soon gave proof of consciousness that they constituted a political unit. In 584 Longinus was sent by the Eastern Emperor t treat with Alboin. He endeavored to secure the allegiance and cooperation of the Vene tians. An embassy from Venice accompanied him on his return to Constantinople, where he secured the first diploma granted to the Venetian people as a separate power. It was not possible, however, that Venice should remain in diplomatic relations with the Eastern empire alone. As the Lombards gradually consolidated their sway, the Venetians were obliged to enter into relations with them also for the purposes of commerce. Thus we find the new-born State of Venice placed in a middle position between the Greek empire and the kingdom of Italy, both of which claimed a suzerainty over her, and to both of which Venice made formal acknowledgment of such superiority. It was the difficulties and dangers of this ced position which animated and governed the history of the republic during he next 230 years, forcing her to struggle for her political existence, and thereby training her to a knowledge of her strength. The superiority of the East or of the West was neve an ascendancy de facto, but the claim of each was ever present as a standing threat to Venetian liberty.

The tribunician constitution, established in 466 and revised about 584, existed 221 years. During that period the rapid growth and great activity of the municipal State tended to em phasize the rivalries and jealousies between sland and island which were their ancien eritage from the maimand cities whence they had drawn their population. The crisis of this internal struggle was reached when the Patriarch of Grado found it necessary to call a general assembly of the lagoon people at Heracles. He pointed out that their in ternal jealousies were imperilling their liberty by rendering the communities weak in the face of enemies. He proposed as a remedy that the Venetians should choose man as head of the State instead of twelve, as heretofore. This advice was accepted, and in Venetians elected their first Doge. They were to go on ing Doges for eleven centuries, a fact which bears witness to the extraordinary vitality of the Venetian State. It is pointed out by the author of this volume that he example of Rome Genoa, and Naples, at that time governed by Dukes, undoubtedly intitle which they bestowed upon the chief of their community. It was only, however, in the course of years and by the slow process of evolution that the ducal attributes became fixed. In its origin the dukedom was a democratic, or at least a constitutional magistracy. Its real character would change with the qualitles of the individual who occupied the ducal chair. If a man of strong personality, the Doge would endeaver to render himself absorlute and his office dynastic; if weak, he would be the slave of faction. A large part of early Venetian history is concerned with the problem of the Doge, with the endeav-or to curb and circumscribe his powers. Some of his functions seem. however, to have been defined from the outset. He appointed and could punish or remove the tribunes, who were preserved as subordinate magistrates. He had the right of summoning the general assembly; he also dealt with foreign powers. To him belonged, moreover, considerable authority in ecclesiastical matters, especially in the election and investiture of Bishops. . But the sanction of the general assembly was required for the conclusion of peace, the declaration of war, and the ratification of a treaty as well as for the election of a Doge.

So far as external affairs are concerned, the repulse of Pepin, King of Italy, in 810, is by far the most important event in early Venetian history. Pepin determined to make his kingdom a fact and not morely a name. One of the first quarters to which he turned his attention was the little corner of north Italy which had shown itself independent, the lagoon of Venice. With the armament which he had prepared at Bavenua he soon made himself master of several points on the sea side of the sand barrier. Near one of the openings, however, which divided the Lidi, the Venetians made a stand. For many months the resistance continued. The lagoon channels proved impassable for Pepin's heavy vessels, and the light boats of the Venetians never ceased to harass the Franks. At last, according to tradition. Pepin cried to the stubbern Island-"Own yourselves my subjects, for you come from lands that are mine." To which came the answer: "We are resolved to be the Roman Emperor's men, not yours." Presently the great heats came on, and the feverish shores of the Lidi proved fatal to the Frankish assailants; rumors, too, of the advent of a Greek fleet helped to convince Pepin that he had failed. He withdrew from the lagoons after promising to recognize every Venetian right and privilege on the main land, and to restore the islands be had captured; in return for which the lagoon population consented to a tribute such as they had formerly paid to the Lombard King. This triumph over the Franks meant that externally the Venetians had demonstrated their right to exist. Internally it signified that the long period of amulgamation was at an end; that the hostile elements in the original lagoon population were now in a large measure fused and made one under the stress of foreign invasion. Rinkto, the new capital of the lagoons, rose into preeminence upon the ruins of Heracles and of Malamocco. and stood there as an outward and visible sign of reconciliation effected in the face of a common danger. The choice, however, of Riaito as the capital was not merely a monument to political compromise; it was also the result of a long process of natural selection.

The invasions of Huns, Goths, and Lombards

had demonstrated the pertis of the mainland

as a place of habitation. The attack of Pepin much suffering and many disasters the Vene liaus chose that middle group of Islands half way between seaboard and mainland, then known as Rialto, which political no less than geographical necessity indicated as the true ome of the civil State.

HII. During the next five hundred years, or, to

speak more exactly, from 810 to 1297, the in-

ternal history of Venice is mainly a record of

the efforts, often baffled, but ultimately suc-

cessful, to combat the hereditary tendency in

the dukedom, and to transfer the powers of the Doge on the one hand, and of the popular assembly on the other, to a close oligarchy The external history of the same period is made up of struggles against the Sclav pirates in the Adriatic and against the Saracens and the Norman power in Sicily; of controversies with the Eastern empire on the one hand and the German Emperor on the other; of conflicts of urisdiction and of precedence between the patriarch of Grado and the patriarch of Aquileia; of the rivalry with Genoa for commercial supremacy in the Levant, and finally of the relations of Venice to the Crusades. Let us glane first at the exterior obstacles which con fronted the commercial development and polit ical autonomy of the Venetian republic. The Sciavs, who had settled in the islands and on the promontories of the Dalmatian coast, ob structed the free transit of merchant vessels in the Adriatic for many centuries. Even at ter their inherent powers of resistance has been overcome they again became formidable through the support of the Kings of Hungary Nevertheless, during the period under review the Venetians struck. In the year 1000, wha seemed a deadly blow at Narenta, the head quarters of the Sclav pirates, and the Doge was recognized as Duke of Dalmatia by the Dalmatian coast towns. Not only did these seaports now acknowledge the overlordship of Venice, but the Venetian merchants were enabled to open in them warehouses where they could store all merchandise that came from the valleys of the Save and the Grave The danger that the city of Venice might be starved into a surrender was thus considera bly reduced. The seaboard of Dalmatia could always supply the food material which was lacking in the lagoons; all that Venice had to do was to keep open the sea route between herself and the east coast of the Adriatic. I is not surprising that the Venetians should have resolved to commemorate the day on which their Doge, Orsoolo, set forth upon this expedition. The form which this commemora tion took was that of a solemn procession out into the open sea by the Lido port. The ceremony was one of supplication and placation prayer that the Lord would make the sea calm and quiet for all who sailed thereon. Ther the Doge and his suite were sprinkled and the rest of the holy water was poured into the sea. Such in its primitive form was the ceremony which in later years developed into the magnificent function so well known as the Espousing of the Sea.

Throughout the ninth and tenth centuries the Venetians had more or less trouble with the Saracens. They were defeated in eral pitched battles, and in 836 the Saracens became masters of the open sea and throughout the Adriatic. The intricate waters of the lagoon, however, again defied invasion. and the singular nature of their home once more saved the Venetians from destruction Ultimately the trading instinct of the people overruled considerations of religion and the requirements of imperial policy in either East or West. The foes of the two empires were not secessarily the foes of the Venetians. They had learned by experience that there was no serious danger of a Saracenic invasion of the agoons, whereas the Saracens, if enemies on the open sea, were able materially to injure Venetian commerce. More could be gained by trading with them than by fighting. Accordingly. Venice put the coping-stone upon its, commercial policy by concluding a treaty with the infidel foes of East and West. It should here be mentioned that during the latter part of the eleventh century. the Venetians owing to their tributary rela tion to the Eastern empire, were brought into collision with the Norman power, which, having been firmly established in Sicily, was seek ng accessions not only in Italy, but on the eastern shore of the Adriatic. The Venetians ought three great naval battles with the Norman fleets, in one of which it was defeated while in the other two it was victorious. They were saved from further encounters with the Normans by the death of Robert Guiscard in 1085. Whatever may have been the value of their last victory over the Norman fleet. Alexius Comnenus paid the stipulated price. His Golden Bull bestowed upon the Doge the title of Protosebastos, and the Venetians were to enjoy free access to all harbors of the Eastern empire and were to be exempt from customs and, most important of all, they acquired certain lands, factories, and warehouses in Con stantinople itself, where they formed a Venetian quarter and a Venetian colony. The Greek Emperor imposed on all the seamer of Amalfi who traded in the imperial city a tribute to be paid toward the building of St. Mark's at Venice. This provision of the Golden Bull is note beginning to take the place of one great maritime town of Italy which might have proved a serious rival in Eastern commerce. Precisel: at the moment, however, when this competitor

worthy, for it shows that the Venetians were received so palpable a check, the rumor of san guinary battles between Pisa and Genoa presaged a more formidable rivalry and the costly struggle which was to accomplish the ruin of two among the great Italian maritime republics. As to the conflict of jurisdiction and ascendancy between the mainland patriarchate of Aquileia and the maritime patriarchate of Grado, we need only say that it lasted for some centuries, the claims of the inland pre late being sustained sometimes by the German Emperor, next by the Dukes of Austria and then by the Kings of Hungary. The ultimate outcome of the struggle was that the Patriarch of Grado was transferred to the city of the lagoons, and was thenceforth known a

The rivalry between Venice on the one hand. and Pisn and Genoa on the other, began about the middle of the twelfth century. Up to that time Venice had succeeded in preserving what was virtually a monopoly of Levanting The merchants of Amalfi had been crushed in 1126. But with the accession of Manuel to the Eastern Empire, 1143, a change of policy took place. The Greek Emperor, partly from a desire to benefit his dominions. partly in order to check the excessive com mercial development of the Venetians, partly through a resentment against Venice for the share she had taken in the earlier crusades, began to favor the two other trading States. From this time forward, for some sixty years, there was a continual struggle between Venetians, l'isans, and Genoese to gain the upper hand in Constantinople. The desire to secure a superi-ority for Venice was one of the main elements of the Doge Dandolo's conduct throughout the

Fourth Crusade. The author of this history does not deny that the diversion of the Fourth Crusade against Constantinople-a diversion brought about by the Venetians-was a crime against civilization. It was a crime for which Venice was destined to pay the penalty through the triumph of the Ottoman Turks over the en-feebled Eastern Empire. Mr. Brown, however, does not fail to bring out what many writers everlook, the grounds, namely, on which the Venetians were justified in their own eyes for the assault upon Constantinople. In contravention of treaties, their factories in Constan inople had been attacked and despoiled, and their fellow citizens had been massacred. The Doge Dandolo himself had partially tost his sight at Constantinopie, and it was the ill-treatment which he suffered there that kindled his hatred of the Greeks. He and his countrymen honestly believed that they had performed a righteous act in over-

throwing the Byzantice Empire, and that their services to Christendom were not overquarter of its territory. All that may be said for and against their conduct in the Fourth Crusade is summed up by the author of this book in some judicial sentences. Throughout the Fourth Crusade the Venetians had played the leading rôle. They had made a great display of independence and of strength. They had successfully defied the Pope and his ecclesiastical weapons. Innocent, while deploring the sack of Constantinople, forgave the other crusaders. The Venetians be could not parden. He threw the whole blame on them-"It is you who have led the army of the Lord into a wicked path." It cannot be denied, however, that the republic reaped a great eward in material aggrandizement. She was now absolutely mistress of the eastern Mediterranean. She acquired a vast increase in actual wealth from her share of the spoils. She bought the rights of Boniface of Montferrat over Crete and Salonica, and obtained leave from the new Latin Emperor for private individuals to cogupy as fiels of the em-pire any of the Ægean Islands not already held by the republic, thereby securing for her citizens the commerce of the whole Levant. Nevertheless, the attack on Constantinople i dmitted to have been a crime which two and a half centuries later brought its own punishment. The establishment of the Turks in Constantinople, facilitated by the action of Venice in 1204, left the republic exposed to a ong series of wars which she sustained, it is true, with herolam, but which broke her power, exhausted her resources, and ma-

Ruskin, in his "Stones of Venice," exhorts us to mark three dates in the internal history of the republic, to wit: 597, next 1297, and then

1797. We have seen that the first date commemorates the appointment of the first Doge, and the last date recalls the annihilation of the

Venetian republic by Bonaparte. No less significant is the date, 1207, for it marks the final act in the transformation of

terially contributed to her ruin.

what had once been a democracy into a close oligarchy. We have pointed out that origi-nally, viz., in 596-7, and for some six centuries later, the Doge was elected by a popular assembly consisting of all the adult male citizens of Venice. Up to 1171 the political machinery of the republic was made up of a Doge, elected, as we have said, with two councillors o assist him, and with power to invite assistance from other prominent citizens if he saw With the Doge also lay the right to convoke the General Assembly, whose voice was indispensable in such important matters as the election of the supreme magistrate, the declaration of war, and the conclusion of peace. The two ducal councillors, however, had never succeeded in acquiring any real weight in the management of affairs, and experience had shown that the people were rash and unruly when they met in the General Assembly. It seemed, therefore, that some middle term was desirable, and the Venetians fixed on the construction of a deliberative assembly which involved the de termination of the exact place in the Constitution to be occupied by the mass of the people on the one hand, and by the Doge upon the other. With a view of creating as efficient, deliberative assembly, each of the six sections of the republic was ordere elect two deputies; each of these twelve deputies nominated forty members from among the more prominent inhabitants of their respective sections; thus an assembly of 480 members was created. They held office for one year; at the end of that period the new assembly itself named the two electors who were to act for each section. The func tions of this body were to appoint the officials of the republic, which was done by vote, and to prepare all matters which had to be submitted to the general assembly of the people. Here, then, we find the germ of the Maggior Con siglio, the Great Council, the basis of the Venetian oligarchical Constitution. In its origin it was a democratic body, but from the outset it contained the germ of a close oligarchy in the provision whereby the new assembly itself named all subse quent twelve electors. The most important step taken at this time in the way of curbing the Doge's authority was the creation of four more ducal councillors, raising the whole number to six. Their duty was to check the doge in any attempt at personal aggrandizement. The compensations offered for such re strictions indicate the lines which the Venetians were to follow in their treatment of the dukedom. The pomp and ceremony surrounding the Doge were increased. A guard of honor accompanied him when he went out, and at his election he was carried in a chair of state around the plazza. Immediately after the construction of this assembly its members undertook to deprive the people of the right to elect the Doge. They appointed eleven electors to nominate the new Doge and to present him to the people for confirmation. When protests were made they adopted the formula. "This is your Doge, if it please you." Event-ually the people were virtually told, "This is your Doge whether you like it or not."

It was not, however, until 1297 that the oli-garchical tendencies of Venice culminated in the closing of the Great Council-Serrata del Maggior Consiglio. The oligarchy which had been slowly forming itself during the last century and a quarter was to become anddent rigid and Venice to acquire at one stroke the peculiar Constitution which distinguished her throughout the rest of her career. It is not to be inferred, however, that the closing of the Great Council was in any sense a coup d'état: it was rather the last and inevitable step in a ong process. In 1268 the power of directly electing the Dogs had been taken away from the Great Council and delegated to a Council of Forty (really comprising forty-one members). who were chosen from the Great Council by a most complicated system of election consisting of no less than ten steps. To this socalled Council of Forty, the law proposed in 1236 and passed early in the following year delegated the right of designating by ballot all those who should hereafter bolong to the Great Council. This provision at once created a special caste in the State which became the sole source of office and authority. The Council of Forty, moreover, was restricted as to its choice. It could only select for members of the Great Council the names of those who, during the previous four years, had occupied a seat in that body. By this law the Vonetian State was divided into three classes: first, those who had had a seat in the Council during the four years preceding 1207; second, those whose ancestors had sat in the Great Council: these were eligible on the nomination of three electors approved by the Doge, and, as a matter of fact, were gradually admitted to the oligarchical assembly; third those who neither in their own person nor in that of their parents had ever possessed a seat in the Great Council. Thus the vast majority of Venetians were disfranchised and rendered forever voiceless in the government of their country. It is noteworthy that the numbers of the Great Council rose rapidly after the Serrata, or Closing, until it included representatives of all the patrician families. 1236 it contained 210 members; in 1311 the number had risen to 1,017, and in 1340 to 1.212 In 1315 a list of all eligible for election was compiled. The scrutiny of this catalogue was entrusted to the Advocates of the Commune, and became continually more severe To insure purity of blood they opened a register of marriages and births. Illegitimate children, or those legitimated after wedlock, or those born in wedlock of a patrician father and plebelan mother were rigidly excluded. Thus the aristocracy constructed itself more and more upon a purely oligarchical basis.

Soon the Great Council itself was deprived of many of its functions. At first it

powers, but these were gradually delegated

until it was left with the right of election to

office as its chief function. Immediately above

the Great Council came the Senate, composed

of 100 members besides, those who, like the ge, the Ducal Council and the chiefs of the Supreme Court, ast ex-officia. The Senate besame the principal legislative body, and it also discharged the function of directing the foreign affairs of the republic. Above the Senate came the Collegio, or Cabinet, made up of the responsible Ministers of State, or, as we should say, of the Secretaries of War, of Marine, and of Finance. The six Ministers undertook their functions in turn, one each week; during that week, he was the prime Minister of the republic. This College or Cabinet was the initiatory body in the State; it possessed also executive powers, and was charged to give effect to the deliberations of the Great Council or the Senate. Above the college were the six ducal councillors, intimately connected with the Chief o the State. Where he went they went. They opened his correspondence; a quorum of them was equivalent to the Doge, and represented, so to speak, his attributes in commission. At the head of all was the Doge himself, who aithough gradually stripped of all real power. personified the majesty of Venice. His presence was everywhere necessary. He presided in the Great Council, in the Senate, in the College and in the Council of Ten. to which we shall presently refer. His pomp was splendid but his authority limited. He appears as a symbol rather than as a factor of the Constitution, the outward and visible sign of the impersonal olf-

We have thus far passed over the one fea-

ture of the Venetian Constitution by which

Ten, devised to remedy the most serious defect

it is most widely known, to wit, the Council of

in the Venetian polity. Its executive incompe tence. It was a feature extraneous to the main lines of the Venetian Constitution, an episode, a break in the pyramidal form of the original structure. The Council of Ten was called into existence by a sudden and pressing need, and it retained the marks of its accidental origin all through its history. Owing, however, to its smaller size and the rapidity and secreey of its action, this body ultimately usurped the blace of the Senate on all urgent occasions. An executive order of the Ten was as binding as a law, and the terror of the Ten was as binding as a law, and the terror of the Ten insured the punctual observance of its commands. Ambassadors reported separately to the Ten, and received from them secret instructions which were sometimes in contradiction to the public instructions of the Senate of the Ten at the contradiction to the public instructions of the Senate. The ambassadors always knew which to obey. In a word, the Venetian Council of Ten was a committee of public safety.

After analyzing in detail the composition and methods of this famous tribunal. Mr. Brown arrives at the conclusion that it was by no means the arbitrary, irresponsible, cruel, and tyrannous institution which it is commonly supposed to have been. He would rather describe it as a body strictly governed by its own rules, and constantly changing its component members, who were therefore unable very dangerously to advase their nowers and seed, and it retained the marks of its accider its own rules, and constantly changing its component members, who were therefore unable ever dangerously to abuse their powers, and who, upon issuing from their single year of office were liable to instant prosecution before the very tribunal of which they had lately formed a part. Secret undoubtedly the tribunal was, by the very nature of its origin, which was the necessity for supplying the State with a swift and efficient executive arm; this secrecy, coupled with the character of the cases which came before the Ten, chiefly contributed to create the awe and dread which the Council unquestionably inspired in the minds alike of Venetians and of foreigners.

VII.

The so-called war of Chioggia was, after the Fourth Crusade, the next great event in the external history of Venice. Here, again, what seemed and was a striking victory eventually contributed, like the Latin conquest of Constantinople, to the eclipse of Venice. It will be remembered that, in 1379, the Genoese, after inflicting defeat after defeat on the Venetians, brought their fleet to the lagoons with the purpose of destroying the rival city. The Genoese Admiral, Doria, occupled a large part of the Lide or sand barrier between Venice and the sea and made Chioggia, near the western end of the natural rampart, his headquarters. Here he remained for almost a year, but ultimately his fleet was blockaded by the Venetians, and the besiegers. becoming the besieged, were, in the end, com

posconing the surement. This was of Chicogn's was the acutest crisis of the control of the was the acutest crisis of passed. Mr. Brown recognizes that from the view point of general European history the war was a great calamity. That does not her's throats he will never he was a control of the view point of general European history the war was a great calamity. That does not her's throats he will never he was a control of the war was a great calamity. That does not her's throats he will never he would not he he was reached constantinople, and that venice would have been speed her long over he more idle than a speculation of this kind. The estrifugat quality in Italian political temperament, as well as the very vigor of the two growing States, placed such a combination of view the war of thougral seemed a glorious triumph. The great rival of the republic sono, a never recovered from the blow, we want to the war of thougral seemed and self-sacrifice displayed by the citizens of Venice, high and low, inspired all her sons with a sones of bride and confidence and self-regenerative power astonished italian statesmen, who are the public does not be recovered from the blow, who was not the only factor in her eapacity of self-regenerative power astonished italian statesmen, who as not the only factor in her eapacity of self-regeneration. A few years of such active trade as we included near the was attuited not on a growth to a factor of the was attuited not on a growth to the sea of the sea

NEW YORK CITY'S PAY ROLL Averages Nearly 845,000 to Its Employees

The total yearly expenses of New York city are \$36,000,00'A. Seven million dollars of this is required to pay the interest on the city's debt or to meet maturing bonds, \$2,500,000 goes for States taxes, and the balance, \$26. 000,000, goes for current expenditures. The chief item of this big account is that of sale aries, which amount this year to \$10,335,823, Here is where the money goes that repare the services of New York city's vast army of employees, male and female, trained and raskilled, Judges and street sweepers, teachers, and policemen, doctors and firemen, engineers and janitors:

The city's annual salary account: Police Department, \$4,859,185; Board of Education, \$3,702,995; Courts, \$1,713,700; Fire Department, \$1,931,33; Street Cleaning Department, \$1,491,000; Charities and Correction, \$631,225; Public Works, \$492,880; Parks, \$388,255; Building Department, \$290,750; Health Department, \$270,936; election of ficers, \$280,400; Law Department, \$170,250; Sheriff's Court, \$114,712; miscellaneous, \$01,000. Total, \$16,335,823.

These are the departments employing the

largest number of persons:

Board of Education, 4,406; Police Departs ment, 3,006; Street Cleaning Department, 2,326; Department of Charities and Correct tion, 1,727; Department of Public Works, 1,628; Fire Department, 1,155; Park Department, 835, and Dock Department, 757. This gives a total of 16,500 employees, but to this must be added the employees of the courts, from Judges to janitors, the clerks in the chief municipal departments, the men who work for the city in markets, in the annexed district, in the Sheriff's office and elsewhere, who bring the total number to 20,000.

Thus, speaking in round numbers, the city has on its regular pay roll 20,000 persons, and they receive collectively \$16,000,000 a year. Some examples of New York's liberality to its more important and responsible public servants can be easily given. Supreme Court Judges in each of the eight judicial districts of this State get \$6,000 each, paid from the State treasury in Albany. New York city, de siring better service in this department and to encourage lawyers of large practice to accept judicial posts, adds on its own account and from its own treasury \$11,500 each. So a Supreme Court Judge in this city gets \$17,500. The Judges of the United States Supreme Court get \$10,000 apiece eac's. Those of the Circuit Courts get \$6,000, and of the Federal

djatriet courts \$5,000. The Judges of the Court of Appeals in Albany get \$10,000 aplece, but New York city pays its superior court. Judges and those of the Common Perior Court. And the superior court. The Mayor of New York City receives the same salary as is paid the Governor of the State. The Comptroller of New York City receives \$10,000 a year and fees: the Comptroller of the State receives \$6,000 and no fees. The Attorney-General who looks after the State business gets \$5,000 at year, but the Corporation Counsel, who looks after the state business gets \$5,000 at year, but the Corporation Counsel, who looks after the city's law business, rots \$12,000. All the state of the city's law business, rots \$12,000. All the was established some or the grown of giving the higher officials in the city's service liberal compensations, in order that, as the advocates of this method phrased it, 'the city would get the best.' Such generous payments, however, it will be noticed, are to judicial officers chiefly, the executive officers in the various city departuents getting moderate asiarles only—the Commissioner's Dorks Commissioner's St. Oom of the St. Oom missioner's Dorks Commissioner's St. Oom of the St. Oom of

GENUINE WOMAN'S RIGHTS.

The Women of Aluska Permit Man to be Glad that He is Alive.

The Women of Aluska Permit Man to be Glad that He is Alive,

From the Washington Emelog Stat.

"Alaskan women." said Judge Sheakley, who was for five years United States Commissioner at Alaska, "have a way of bringing their husbands to time which is very effective.

"They do not fling flatirons and rolling pins or give curtain lectures, but retire to a corner, neglect their household duties, and sulk, refusing to say a word. A few days of this treatment bring the husband round.

"The women in Alaska slso have an old way of quarrelling. They do not pull hair or react to listicuffs, but after giving each other a severe tongue lashing they retire to their homes. Alaskans are divided up into families, such as the Bear, Grow, and Deer families. These families take cognizance of quarrels, and feuds result. After the quarrel Mrs. hear will retire to her house, tear up her clothing and two or three blankets and then send word to Mrs. Fagle, her enemy. It thereupon becomes incumbent upon Alrs. Fagle to destroy a greater amount of clothing and more blankets of her own than Mrs. Bear. By pursuing this peculiar process she evens things up in the quarrel. If she did not do so she would be disgraced in the eyes of her relatives and opposito tribes.

"The women are great traders, carry the purse, and manage things generally. If the husband makes a bad bargain in trading his wife ridicules him.

"There is a woman in Sitka known as Princess Tom, who is very rich. She at one time had three husbands, but has become Christianized and has discarded two. She is an extensive trader and has discarded two. She is an extensive trader and has discarded two. She is an extensive trader and has soveral large cances in which she transports goods from sitka to the interior and exchanges them with the natives for furs. She is known all over Alaska and wears upon her arms twenty or thirty goid braceits made out of \$20 gold pieces.

"The natives also trace their genealogy through the femile branch of the family and the inheritance comes through

The women are not slaves, as in the indian tribes in this country, but overcise agreat deal of authority.

They have another poculiar custom. In this country a man's prominence depends is regely upon his wealth. Among the Alaskans it depends us in how much he gives away. If a rich member of the Fagle tribe, for example, wishes to become a chief or a prominent man, he makes a put latch or gitt of all his property. All the members of the Fagle family, no matter how remole, are invited to attend the post and feasting and frequently last a week. The more he gives away and the poorer he makes himself the more exalted he becomes in the estimation of his fellows.

The women cmulate their sex in civilized countries in their affectation of bright and gaudy colors, and most of the money that they receive is invested in bright-colored goods and shawls.

ormed with the view of obtaining a fariety of this plant containing more than the everege amount of sugar. The result of the | the lesson was completely learned, and the